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ABSTRACT

Using data from the fifteen-year National Longitudinal Study (NLS), a special study examined the interaction of work-related attitudes and subsequent behavior for eight age-sex-race groups. It was found that attitudes do influence subsequent work behavior. Specifically, it was established that individuals who felt they could influence their future through their own efforts later experienced greater success in the labor market than those who were less optimistic. Similarly, the relationship between job dissatisfaction and turnover was clearly marked. The evidence also indicated that dissatisfaction results in extensive costs to workers in terms of increased unemployment, decreased labor force participation, below-average growth in annual earnings, and a lower rate of promotion. For women in particular, their degree of commitment to work, their attitudes toward the propriety of mothers' working, and their husbands' attitudes toward wives' labor force participation all bore a measureable relationship to subsequent work experiences. The findings pointed to the potential significance of instilling "success-prone" attitudes in youth as they proceed from school to their initial work experiences. (Tables of statistical data are appended.) (Author/LMS)

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Work Attitudes and Work Experience

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The Impact of Attitudes on Behavior

R&D Monograph 60

U.S. Department of Labor
Ray Marshall, Secretary

Employment and Training Administration
Ernest G. Green
Assistant Secretary for Employment and Training
1979

This report was edited by Dr. Florence M. Casey, Office of Research and Development, Office of Policy, Evaluation, and Research, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, and is based on the study, "Work Attitudes and Labor Market Experience: Evidence from the National Longitudinal Surveys" by Paul Andrisani, Eileen Appelbaum, Ross Koppel, and Robert C. Miljus of the Center for Labor and Human Resource Studies, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

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FOREWORD

This monograph describes the findings of a special exploration* of data from the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS), a 15-year study of the attitudes and work experience of four age-sex groups: Men aged 45 to 59, women aged 30 to 44, and young men and women aged 14 to 24 years at the date of the initial interviews. This special effort further subdivided these four groups by race and examined the interaction of work-related attitudes and subsequent behavior for each of the eight resulting age-sex-race groups.

The findings reported here represent an important step forward in research concerning worker motivation, since they make it clear that attitudes do influence subsequent work behavior. Specifically, it was established that individuals who felt they could influence their future through their own efforts later experienced greater success in the labor market than those who were less optimistic. Similarly, the relationship between job dissatisfaction and turnover was clearly marked in each of the eight age-sex-race groups. The evidence also indicates that dissatisfaction results in extensive costs borne by workers in terms of increased unemployment, decreased labor force participation, below-average growth in annual earnings, and a lower rate of promotion. For women in particular, their degree of commitment to work, their attitudes toward the propriety of mothers' working, and their husbands' attitudes toward wives' labor force participation all bore a measurable relationship to subsequent work experiences.

The monograph spells out the special relevance of these findings for parents, students, employers, educators, and policymakers including the potential significance of instilling "success-prone" attitudes in youth as they proceed from school to their initial work experiences. The study is recommended to these audiences both for the informational value of its findings and as an example of the unusual data resources supplied by such longitudinal studies as the NLS.

HOWARD ROSEN
Director
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*Paul Andrisani and others, *Work Attitudes and Labor Market Experience: Evidence from the National Longitudinal Surveys* (Philadelphia: Center for Labor and Human Resource Studies, Temple University, May 1977).

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INTRODUCTION

How do workers feel about work and are any trends apparent in levels of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction? Which workers are more likely than others to be satisfied with their jobs? How does personal motivation influence success or failure in the labor market?

Do the attitudes of workers about their jobs influence their employment decisions and preferences over a period of years? Are those who are dissatisfied with their present jobs more likely than others to change employers—and, if so, what are the costs of benefits of such mobility in terms of spells of unemployment, time out of the labor force, changes in occupation and earnings, and time spent in training? Is dissatisfaction with pay, hours of work, and working conditions less apparent than dissatisfaction with the "meaninglessness" of work? Is worker alienation as widespread as much of the recent literature on the "quality of working life" implies?[1]

Research focusing on issues such as these has been hampered in the past by the unavailability of longitudinal data on large national samples, i.e., data reflecting the attitudes and behavior of a substantial number of workers *over a reasonably long period of time*, with the *same* workers being interviewed and reinterviewed on different occasions. This study, however, draws upon a unique set of data—those available from the National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) as of the autumn of 1975. Exploration of the NLS results may therefore help to fill the void in our present understanding of these issues.

Launched in 1966, the NLS is a 15-year study of the attitudes and work experience of four age-sex groups, each consisting of roughly 5,000 respondents: Men aged 45 to 59, women aged 30 to 44, and young men and women aged 14 to 24 years at the date of the initial interviews. Each group constitutes a representative national sample of the noninstitutionalized civilian population of similar age and sex as of the first survey date. The samples were drawn and personal interviews conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census for the Ohio State University Center for Human Resource Research under separate contracts with the U.S. Department of Labor.

For the purposes of this study, the four major groups interviewed on different occasions between 1966 and 1972 were further subdivided by race.[2] Therefore, virtually all of the data reported here are presented separately for each of the four age-sex groups and, within each group, separately for whites and blacks. (The NLS data, it should be noted, will soon permit studies of the responses of the same people to 1976. The last planned surveys will provide 1981 data for men and 1983 data for women.)

[1] In recent years, some observers have speculated that there has been a sharp increase in job dissatisfaction and a dramatic change in work ethic among members of the labor force. According to many recent studies, a number of factors have contributed to worker alienation, especially widespread division of labor, centralized decisionmaking, extensive bureaucratization, coupled with rising income, educational attainment, aspirations, and expectations. See, for example, R. Blauner, *Alienation and Freedom: The Factory Worker and His Industry* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964); L.E. Davis and E.L. Trist, *Improving the Quality of Work Life: Experience of the Socio-Technical Approach* (Washington: Upjohn Institute, 1973); H.L. Sheppard and N.Q. Herrick, *Where Have All the Robots Gone?* (New York: The Free Press, 1972); and *Work in America*, Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare (Cambridge: MIT Press, 1972).

[2] In order to permit statistically reliable estimates for blacks, the researchers oversampled them by a ratio of roughly 3 to 1 in each of the four age-sex groups.

Among the major findings that emerged from this special exploration of the NLS data are the following:[3]

—*Job satisfaction as a whole declined somewhat during the 1966-72 period within seven of the eight age-sex-race groups. Virtually all of the 5- to 13-percentage-point decline, however, was from "highly satisfied" to "somewhat satisfied" rather than from "satisfied" to "dissatisfied."*

—*Contrary to popular belief, the downward trends in job satisfaction were least pronounced among operatives and laborers and most marked among white-collar workers, service workers, farmers, farm managers, and craft workers.*

—Also contrary to popular belief, white youth in blue-collar and service occupations were no less satisfied with their jobs than were their middle-aged counterparts.

—*In more general terms, fewer than 15 percent of the workers within any of the eight age-sex-race groups reported that they disliked their jobs during the 1966-72 period.*

—Blacks, however, tended to be less satisfied than older workers, and women tended to be more highly satisfied than men.

—*Occupational prestige and promotions were the factors most consistently and systematically associated with job satisfaction and with changes in satisfaction.* Inequities in the distribution of rewards among comparable workers, rather than the amounts or nature of the rewards themselves, were most strongly linked to dissatisfaction.

—*Individuals who felt they could influence their future through their own efforts subsequently experienced greater labor market success than their less optimistic contemporaries.*[4]

—*For each of the eight age-sex-race groups, the relationship between job dissatisfaction and turnover is unmistakable: Highly dissatisfied workers were from 14 to 42 percentage points more likely than comparable highly satisfied workers to change employers.* This relationship was more pronounced among younger than older workers and among blacks than whites.

—*The evidence also suggests that dissatisfaction results in considerable costs to workers in terms of increased unemployment, decreased labor force participation, and below-average growth in both annual earnings and promotions.* An exception to this finding was that dissatisfied black workers, compared with satisfied black workers, experienced greater occupational advancement, largely as a result of their greater tendency to change employers.

—Interest in purely economic rewards did not appear to be growing or especially strong during the period covered by the study. Instead, factors inherent in the job *content* were accorded greater importance than those inherent in the job *context*, particularly by highly satisfied workers.

—On the other hand, earnings and fringe benefits clearly predominated as aspects of work most disliked by dissatisfied black workers at the beginning of the survey period, regardless of age and sex, with 15 to 22 percent citing this factor as the aspect of work they liked least. In addition, hours of work and working conditions were frequently mentioned by blacks as disliked aspects of work. These same three aspects of work were also the primary sources of dissatisfaction among whites who were less than highly satisfied with their jobs.

—*Career goals, expectations of achieving goals, commitment to work, attitudes toward the propriety of working mothers, and husbands' attitudes towards their wives' working—all bear a relationship to subsequent labor market experience.* In particular, the career goals of male youth, both black and white, and a belief that one's goals are attainable, are strongly related to a successful transition from school to work.

—Motivation was extremely important for youth. However, motivation may be shaped by the opportunities available. Young men and women of both races set considerably higher occupational goals for themselves than either they or the older respondents had attained. Nonetheless, 29 to 37 percent of the male youth believed that their chances of attaining their goals were only "fair" at best.

—*Among the younger workers of both sexes, racial differences in occupational aspiration levels were substantial throughout the 1966-69 period. White young men were also 1 ½ times as likely as black youth to believe that their chances of attaining their goals were "excellent."*

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[3] All reported comparisons are for comparable groups and in each case, such factors as age, sex, race, education, etc., are statistically controlled or "neutralized."

[4] The Coleman Report (1966) found that differences in these attitudes were a more important factor in explaining achievement among black youth than all of the differences in school quality and family background combined. However, the NLS data indicate that there is little reason to suspect that the elimination of racial differences in these attitudes would have an appreciable impact on black-white differences in work experience since, in the main, blacks differ only slightly from whites in these attitudes. (See Coleman and others, *Equality of Educational Opportunity* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966).)

—A strong commitment to work at the first survey date resulted in fewer weeks out of the labor force over the next 4 to 5 years among the older respondents, greater investment in training among young women and older men, and greater labor market advancement among the younger and older women.

—White women with "dual careers" who perceived their husbands as unfavorably disposed toward their working advanced less in earnings and occupational status over the next 4 years, experienced more unemployment and weeks out of the labor force, and were less likely to receive formal occupational training than comparable women whose husbands did not object to their working.

These findings have significant implications for parents, students, employers, educators, and policymakers, as well as for workers themselves. For example, the fact that job dissatisfaction and turnover are so predictably linked has a special meaning for employers who must repeatedly bear the cost of recruiting, selecting, and training new workers to fill high-turnover jobs—in this case, the NLS data provide convincing evidence that one of the ways to reduce such costs may be to redesign or restructure jobs in which it has proved to be especially difficult to retain workers.

Educators should find special relevance in the finding that individuals who feel that their own efforts play an important role in determining their job future subsequently experience greater labor market success than those who are less self-confident and more inclined to believe that success or failure is the result of external or impersonal forces. The potential role of educational systems in instilling "success-prone" attitudes in their students is one of obvious significance that requires more intensive exploration by those in the teaching professions as well as by social scientists. A high priority in this regard is the need to determine at what school level and at what ages these attitudes can be most effectively instilled in young people as they proceed through the grade system. In addition, the strong relationships observed among aspiration-levels, self-confidence, and success in the transition from school to work indicate the existence of an important guidance role for families, counselors, and suppliers of labor market information to the young in both the formative years and the crucial years of school-leaving and labor force entry.

Of particular interest to policymakers is the evidence suggesting that job dissatisfaction imposes major costs on workers in terms of longer spells of unemployment and lower labor force participation rates. Since workers who are between jobs are more likely to draw upon unemployment insurance and on welfare, it appears that the factors creating job dissatisfaction can contribute indirectly to the overall costs of social programs at the same time that they deprive many of the opportunity to work at more productive and satisfying jobs.

The remainder of this report discusses these findings in more detail, beginning with a review of levels and trends in job satisfaction during the NLS survey period and continuing with an exploration of the impact of attitudes regarding personal initiative on subsequent labor market experience. A third section deals with the relationship between job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and subsequent turnover, unemployment, labor force participation, and earnings. The final portions of the report examine workers' preferences for "intrinsic" and "extrinsic" job rewards and provide a summary of other findings arising from the NLS data, particularly those regarding the importance of a long-term commitment to work for the careers of both men and women.

LEVELS AND TRENDS IN JOB SATISFACTION

Consistent with the findings of other studies,[1] remarkably few of the NLS workers explicitly expressed dissatisfaction with their jobs at any survey date between 1966 and 1972. (See appendix tables 1 and 2.) Fewer than 15 percent of the workers in each of the eight subgroups responded that they disliked their job somewhat or disliked it very much.[2]

A number of reasons may be advanced for the relatively high satisfaction levels reported by the NLS workers. Respondents may perceive a report of dissatisfaction with their jobs as an admission of personal failure or as a socially undesirable response. Or, when workers are unable to find more attractive jobs, they may lower their aspirations and expectations and subsequently report themselves to be at least somewhat satisfied with their jobs. Nonetheless, it appears unlikely that so few workers would openly express dissatisfaction with their jobs if levels of alienation were as high as much of the recent literature on the "quality of working lives" implies.

Despite the small proportion openly expressing job dissatisfaction, the proportion of workers among the eight subgroups who were less than highly satisfied during the 1966-72 period ranged from 31 to as high as 65 percent. *There is also evidence that job satisfaction did decline somewhat within most subgroups between 1966 and 1972, particularly after 1969 and generally more so among whites than blacks.* (See charts A and B.) Only among the younger black men is there no evidence of a downward trend in job satisfaction. (In their case, the proportion highly satisfied with their jobs actually rose from 35 percent in 1966 to 44 percent in 1970.) For the other subgroups, the proportion who were highly satisfied declined by 12 to 13 percent among white middle-aged men, white and black mature women, and among younger black women, as well as by 5 percent among black middle-aged men and white youth.

Four points should be made about this decline in job satisfaction and about age-sex-race differences in satisfaction levels and trends. First, most of the decline reflects a shift from "highly satisfied" to "somewhat satisfied," rather than from "satisfied" to "dissatisfied"—a fact that considerably softens the impact of the decline noted here. Second, the decline occurred while the NLS respondents were accumulating up to 5 additional years of work experience. With the possible exception of the middle-aged men, this experience might have been expected to have improved their labor market situation and to have enhanced, rather than lowered, their degree of job satisfaction.

Third, on the basis of the limited trend data available, it appears that the observed decline in job satisfaction is mainly a product of the 1970's. Finally, the data generally appear to be consistent with those of other national surveys with respect to age, sex, and race differences.[3]

Given the vast disparities in the employment experience of different racial groups, it is not surprising to find that most black workers were less likely than their white counterparts to be highly satisfied with their jobs. Other studies have also shown that younger workers tend to be less highly satisfied than older workers and that women do not appear to differ consistently from men in the proportion who are satisfied with their jobs. However, the NLS data presented in this study suggest that women are more likely to be highly satisfied with their jobs than are men.

Professional-technical workers and managers, officials, and proprietors among the NLS respondents appeared to be the most highly satisfied with their jobs, while operatives and laborers were among the least satisfied—a contrast that underlines the importance of occupational status as a factor in generating job satisfaction. Clerical jobs were relatively satisfying to

[1] See, for example, R.P. Quinn and others, *Job Satisfaction: Is There a Trend?* U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Research Monograph No. 30 (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974); G. Strauss, "Job Satisfaction, Motivation, and Job Redesign," in *Organizational Behavior Research and Issues*, edited by G. Strauss and others (Madison: Industrial Relations Research Association, 1974), pp. 221-36; and *Work in America*, Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare (Cambridge: MIT Press, 1972).

[2] Respondents were asked "How do you feel about the job you have now? Do you like it very much, like it fairly well, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?" Workers who responded "like it very much" are referred to in this section as the "highly satisfied." For a discussion of the various measures of job satisfaction found in similar studies, particularly those examining the possibility of trends, see Quinn and others, op. cit.

[3] See Quinn and others, op. cit., for a summary of 15 national surveys conducted between 1958 and 1973 to examine levels and trends in job satisfaction.

Chart A. Proportion of highly satisfied and somewhat satisfied among NLS male respondents, 1966-71, by age and race.

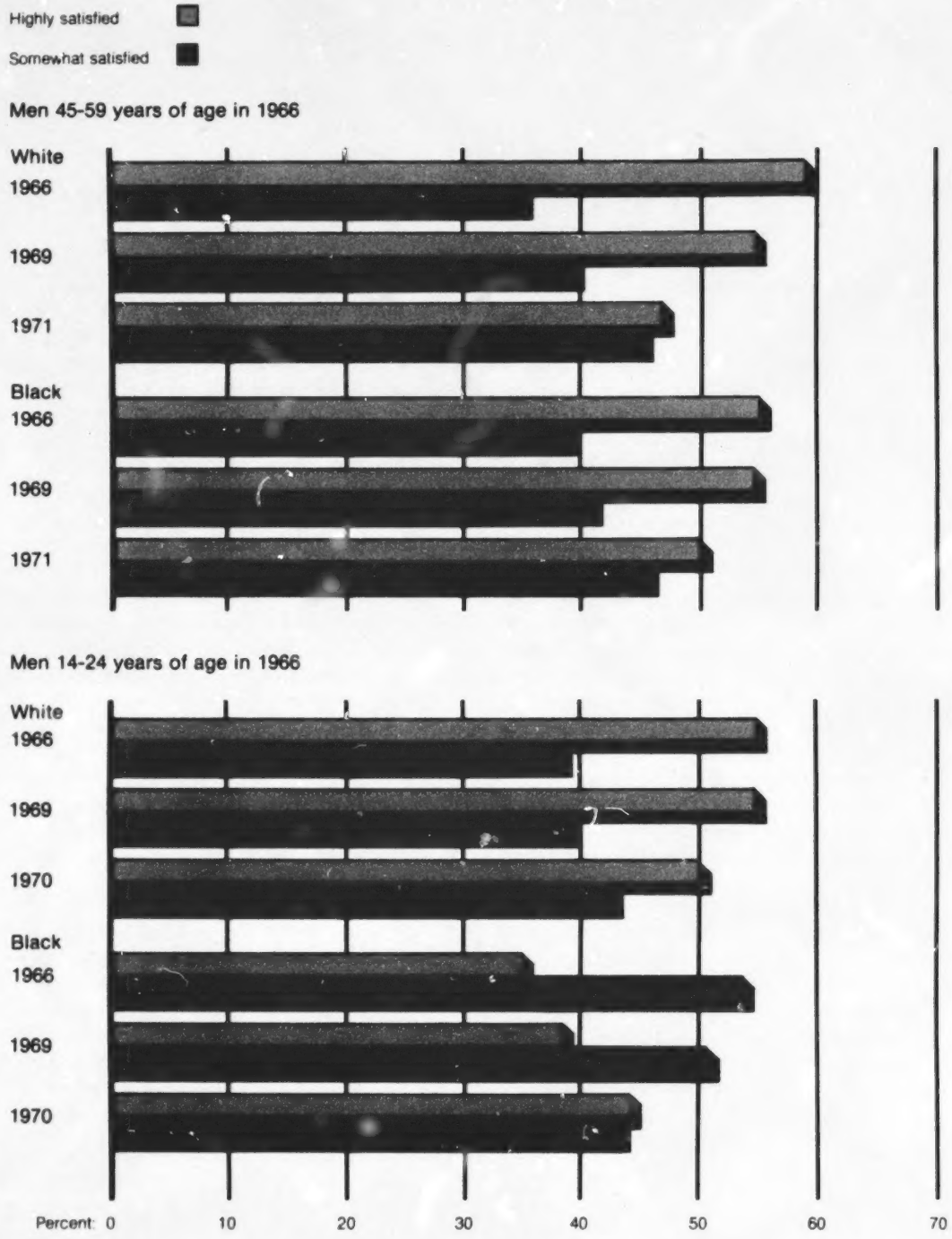

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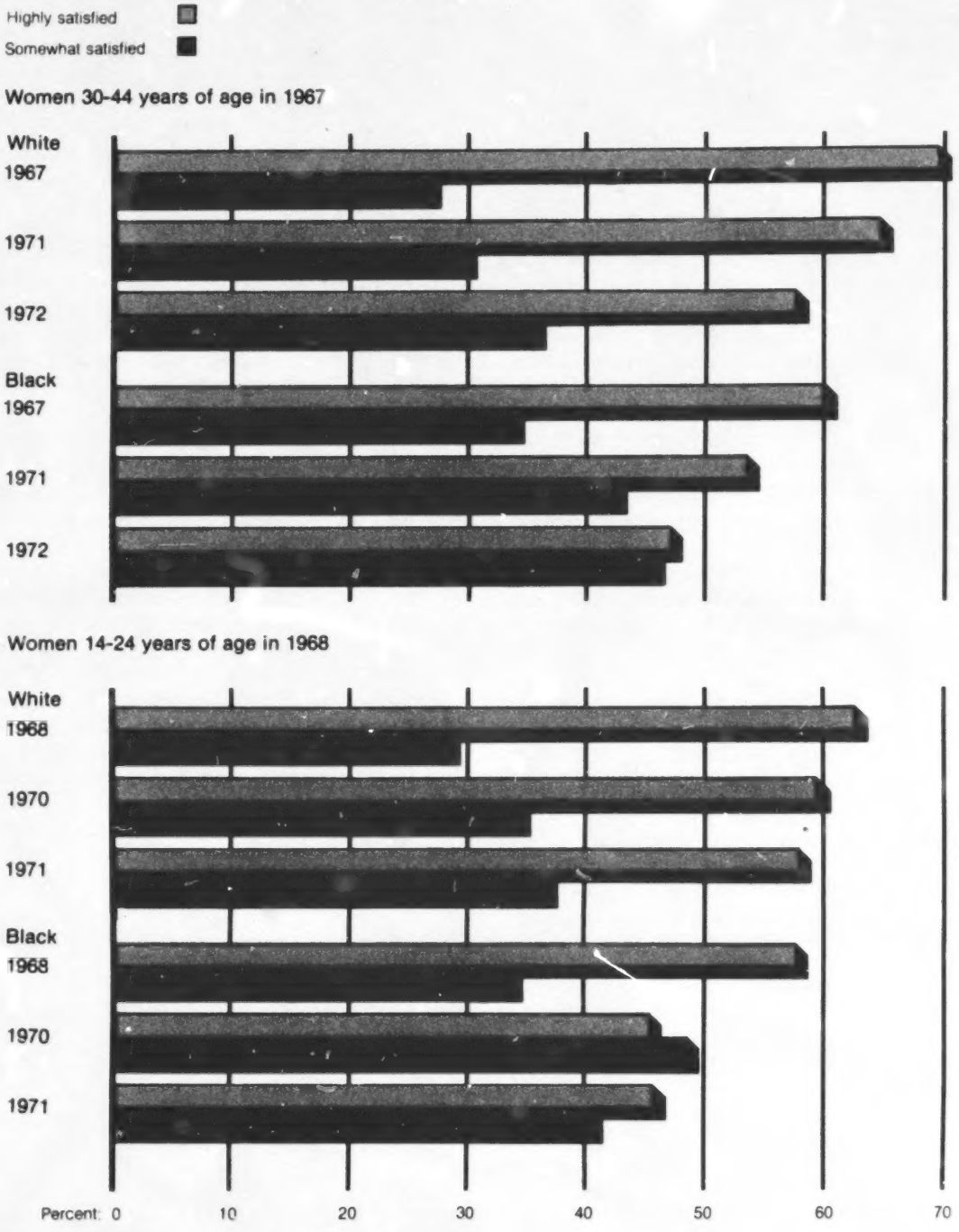
Chart B. Proportion of highly satisfied and somewhat satisfied among NLS female respondents, 1967-1972, by age and race.



women, as were sales positions to all but younger workers. (See appendix tables 3 and 4.)

Except for the middle-aged men, differences in broad occupational categories do not account entirely for the racial differences in degree of job satisfaction mentioned earlier. Nor may age and sex differences in degree of job satisfaction be explained entirely in terms of differences in occupational distribution. Among professional-technical, clerical, and sales workers, for example, older workers, relative to youth, were more often highly satisfied.

Within the major blue-collar and service occupational categories, young black men were consistently less likely than their older counterparts to report themselves as highly satisfied with their jobs, perhaps as a result of generally rising levels of occupational aspiration in this group. Among white men, on the other hand, there was little evidence that young craft workers, operatives, farmworkers or service workers were any less likely to be highly satisfied with their jobs than were their older counterparts. In addition, there were substantial sex differences within every major occupational category in the proportion who were highly satisfied.

Significantly, the downward trends in job satisfaction noted earlier appear to be more the result of trends within certain occupations than of downward movements within all major occupations. Perhaps the most important finding in this regard is *that a lowering or satisfaction levels among white-collar and skilled blue-collar workers accounts for most of the overall decline.*

The most notable reduction in job satisfaction is among professional and technical workers. With the single exception of young black men in professional-technical jobs (where insufficient sample cases preclude an estimate), the proportion of highly satisfied professional-technical workers declined systematically between 1966 and 1971 within each of the population subgroups. The proportion highly satisfied also declined among white and black middle-aged men who were managers, officials, and proprietors.

Job satisfaction of clerical workers declined considerably for both whites and blacks among middle-aged men and young women. Among sales workers, satisfaction also declined in the cases of white men and white older women. Only in the case of middle-aged white men was there a decline in job satisfaction among operatives or laborers. Among service workers, job satisfaction declined within each of the four age-sex groups and among blacks within the older group of women.

Among the broad industrial categories, those with a significant proportion of higher status occupations[4] generally showed better than half their workers as highly satisfied with their jobs between 1966 and 1971. Racial differences in occupation *within* industries may account in part for generally below-average levels of job satisfaction among blacks in agriculture, construction, manufacturing, and in the wholesale and retail trades. Within age and race groups, there are few industrial cases where the proportion of women highly satisfied is systematically lower than the proportion of men. The data also suggest a tendency for fewer young blacks to be highly satisfied with their jobs than their older counterparts within the same industries.

As in the case of major occupational categories, downward trends in job satisfaction are more pronounced in some industries than in others. In manufacturing, for example, the proportion of workers highly satisfied declined, except among the younger men and the young black women. Trends in job satisfaction within major industries appear to differ across the age-sex-race groups, however, perhaps as a function of age-sex-race differences in the quality of employment within industries and in preferences for various types of work reward.

Finally, although the proportion expressing high job satisfaction is related to wage rates, the relationship is neither very strong nor consistent among the eight subgroups. It appears, for example, that age-sex-race differences in wages account for very little of the age-sex-race differences in job satisfaction observed earlier. Nor may the declines in job satisfaction previously observed be attributed solely to decreased satisfaction among workers in the lowest-paid jobs. Even among those earning more than $3.25 per hour, the proportion of highly satisfied declined during the period among whites within each of the four age-sex groups, as well as among young black men.

[4]These include: Professional and related services, finance, insurance, and real estate, business and repair services, public administration, communication, and utilities.

INTERNAL-EXTERNAL ATTITUDES, PERSONAL INITIATIVE, AND SUBSEQUENT LABOR MARKET EXPERIENCE

Internal-external attitudes refer here to the degree to which individuals perceive success as the product of personal initiative. At one extreme are those who perceive individual effort to be solely instrumental in attaining success, while at the other extreme are those who view success as the outcome of chance, "fate," circumstance, and other factors beyond individual control.[1]

In the context of labor market behavior, the measurement of internal-external attitudes is particularly useful for several reasons. First, individual differences in internal-external attitudes reflect varying degrees of commitment to the work ethic and value system embraced by the mainstream of the American work force. Second, although there has been little evidence from which to judge, there are some who suggest that white-black differences in labor market experience stem mainly from racial differences in work ethic attitudes closely resembling the internal-external distinction.[2]

Third, there is considerable evidence demonstrating the importance of these attitudes for socioeconomic attainment. The Coleman Report,[3] for example, found individual differences in internal-external attitudes to be the best predictor of academic achievement among blacks.

The NLS data reveal only very slight differences among the eight age-sex-race groups in internal-external attitudes (table 1). The findings also provide little evidence of a changing work ethic among the young, contrary to much recent speculation.

Blacks tended to be slightly less internal in outlook than whites of the same age and sex. These racial differences are quite small, however, especially among the women, suggesting that despite various forms of discrimination, black workers differ little in work ethic from the mainstream of the labor force. The findings are therefore inconsistent with the thesis that the greater incidence of poverty among blacks might be explained by a lesser tendency to possess an internal outlook and Protestant work ethic.

The findings also suggest that these attitudes are not influenced to a marked degree by labor market experience—otherwise, large age, sex, and racial differentials in attitude would surely have been observed.

For the younger men, *both* whites and blacks with an "internal" outlook in 1968 were in higher status occupations and had higher hourly earnings 2 years later than comparable "externals." Those youth who were "slightly internal" in 1968 are estimated to have enjoyed a 12-percent differential in hourly earnings 2 years later over comparable youth who were "slightly external" in outlook. Also, their average hourly earnings are estimated to have advanced by 20 cents per hour more between 1968 and 1970 than the wage rates of comparable youth who were "slightly external."

With respect to racial differences, it appears that internal attitudes are more strongly related to *annual earnings* 2 years later for whites than for blacks, while such attitudes are more strongly related to *occupational advancement* for blacks than for whites.

The only aspect of labor market experience examined that was not significantly related to prior internality/externality for either race group is growth in annual earnings. This may reflect greater investments (in the form of earnings foregone in favor of education, extended job search, and mobility) that the young "internals" made in order to realize their advantage 2 years later in hourly earnings and occupational advancement. Subsequent data from the NLS should provide a better measure of the long-term impact of internality/externality on the annual earnings of whites and blacks.

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[1] J.B. Rotter, "Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement," Psychological Monographs 609, 1966.

[2] See, for example, O. Lewis, "The Culture of Poverty," in *On Understanding Poverty*, D.P. Moynihan, ed. (New York: Basic Books, 1969), and E.C. Banfield, *The Unheavenly City: The Nature and Future of Our Urban Crisis* (New York: Little, Brown, 1970).

[3] Coleman and others, op. cit.

TABLE 1. INTERNAL–EXTERNAL ATTITUDES MEASURED BY AGE, SEX, AND RACE

(Mean scores)

Item	Younger men		Older men		Younger women		Older women	
	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks	Whites	Blacks
Number of sample cases	2,691	1,003	2,552	956	3,110	1,222	2,916	1,100
Total score	7.8	9.0	7.8	9.3	8.2	9.2	8.1	9.0
A. (a) "What happens to me is my own doing." or (b) "Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking."	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.2	1.9	2.2	1.8	2.2
B. (a) "When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work." or (b) "It is not always wise to plan too far ahead, because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow."	2.2	2.7	2.1	2.7	2.4	2.8	2.3	2.8
C. (a) "In may case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with bad luck." or (b) "Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin."	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6
D. (a) "Many times I feel that I have little influence over things that happen to me." or (b) "It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life."	2.2	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.4

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Similarly, for middle-aged men, the data strongly suggest that internal attitudes result in significant economic returns and that they pay off for blacks as well as whites. However, they appear to have considerably greater importance for occupational achievement among whites than blacks.

Middle-aged white men with an "internal" outlook in 1969 experienced greater hourly and annual earnings, as well as growth in earnings between 1969 and 1971, were in higher status occupations in 1971, and experienced greater upward occupational mobility than externals. Furthermore, the whites who were "slightly internal" in 1969 are estimated to have enjoyed an 8-percent earnings differential, on both an hourly and an annual basis, and to have advanced in earnings during the 1969-71 period by nearly $400 more than comparable individuals who were "slightly external."

Among black middle-aged men, internals were also more likely to earn more than their external counterparts 2 years later, especially on an annual basis, and to have advanced more rapidly in annual earnings between 1969 and 1971 as well. Those blacks who were "slightly internal" in 1969, for example, are estimated to have enjoyed a 12-percent annual earnings differential and a 4-percent hourly earnings differential over comparable blacks who were "slightly external" in outlook. They are also estimated to have advanced in earnings during the 1969-71 period by nearly $500 more than the externals. However, while internal attitudes appear to have considerable economic returns for middle-aged black men, the data suggest that they have had little effect on their access to higher status occupations. The reduction of historical restrictions on the occupational entry and advancement of blacks during the late 1960's and early 1970's, therefore, may have been of considerably greater benefit to younger, than to middle-aged, blacks.

Among white women in their thirties and forties, those who anticipated payoffs to their initiative in 1969 tended to have higher hourly earnings 2 years later, tended to be in higher status occupations, and were more likely than average to have advanced occupationally. While the relationships in the cases of occupational attainment and occupational advancement do not differ appreciably from those reported for young and middle-aged men, the relationship between attitude and hourly earnings appears weaker in the case of the women. Those "slightly internal," for example, are estimated to have enjoyed a 4 percent differential

in hourly earnings 2 years later, to have been 5 points higher in occupational status, and to have advanced in occupational status by about one-and-a-half points more than comparable "slightly external" women.

Unlike the findings for white men, however, there is no evidence of a systematic relationship between these attitudes and subsequent annual earnings or growth in earnings among the white women. Among blacks, the differences between men and women are even more substantial, suggesting not only that the initiative of black women in their thirties and forties is less important for labor market success than that of young or middle-aged black men, but also that the initiative of black women is less important than that of white women. In fact, other things being equal, there is no evidence whatsoever that the labor market rewards the initiative of black women in their thirties and forties.

The evidence does suggest that black women with some college training earn a considerable return for their schooling, in some cases more than that accruing to white women or to middle-aged men of both races. College training among these black women has payoffs at least as great in terms of hourly earnings, annual earnings, and occupational status as it does among young white and black men. Black women with no college training generally do not fare as well, however.

JOB SATISFACTION AND SUBSEQUENT LABOR MARKET EXPERIENCE

While it is difficult to determine exactly what costs are borne by American employers as a result of voluntary turnover, there is a general consensus that these costs are very high, especially when the economy is in an upswing and labor supply is tight. The NLS data permit examination of differences between satisfied and dissatisfied workers not only in terms of their subsequent turnover pattern, but also in terms of: (1) Change in occupational status, (2) change in earnings, (3) unemployment, and (4) labor force participation.

Turnover

Dissatisfaction and subsequent turnover are unmistakably linked among NLS respondents (see appendix table 5). Moreover, job dissatisfaction appears to impose additional costs on workers in terms of increased unemployment, decreased labor force participation, and decreased growth in annual earnings. The NLS data provide no evidence, however, that dissatisfaction causes workers to relocate or to acquire additional skills in order to attain more satisfying jobs.

Some evidence exists, nonetheless, that dissatisfied black women subsequently advanced *more* in hourly earnings and occupational status than their more highly satisfied counterparts, perhaps as a result of their greater tendency to change employers. There is also evidence, perhaps stemming from the same causes, that young and middle-aged black men who were dissatisfied with their jobs subsequently advanced more in occupational status, indicating that, for members of minority groups in particular, job stability may be counterproductive in both the short and long terms.

Striking confirmation of the impact of worker attitudes on behavior is provided by the fact that *among middle-aged men* (where one would expect the greatest degree of worker stability), *those highly dissatisfied with their jobs were from 14 to 20 percent more likely than comparable men who were highly satisfied to make a subsequent change of employer, regardless of their years of service with their previous firm.* Overall, among the eight age-sex-race groups, differences in the likelihood of a subsequent job change between highly dissatisfied and highly satisfied workers ranged in the magnitude from a 14-percentage-point differential among white middle-aged men to a 42-percentage-point difference among younger black women.

Dissatisfaction is generally more likely to lead to turnover among younger than older workers. Furthermore, with the exception of the younger men, it also appears that job dissatisfaction is more likely to lead to turnover among blacks than whites. In only one instance, however, does a substantial difference exist between men and women—dissatisfaction is twice as likely to cause a job change among young black women as young black men.

Unemployment and Withdrawal From the Labor Force

There is considerable evidence in the NLS data that dissatisfied workers are more prone to unemployment, perhaps as a result of their greater tendency to change employers and/or a greater tendency to quit a job before lining up a new one. There is also a greater likelihood that job dissatisfaction will lead to withdrawal from the labor force, especially among the older white men, the older white women, and the

younger black women. Highly dissatisfied workers in each of these three subgroups are estimated to have been out of the work force for 3 to 4 months longer than comparable workers who were highly satisfied. The nearly 14-week reduction in labor force participation estimated for dissatisfied younger women is particularly noteworthy since it occurred during a period of only 2 years' duration, from 1968 to 1970.

Earnings and Occupational Advancement

There is no evidence that the dissatisfied workers were less likely to advance occupationally—in fact, among blacks within each of the four age-sex groups, the dissatisfied were *more* likely to advance occupationally.

In only one case, that of the younger white men, did the dissatisfied subsequently advance less in wage rates, and black women who were dissatisfied with their jobs subsequently advanced more in hourly wage rates as well as in occupational status. These gains, however, were apparently offset by other factors, such as greater unemployment and reduced labor force participation, since there is no evidence that the dissatisfied advanced more in annual earnings.

Among each of the four groups of men and among the younger white women, where no disproportionate gains in hourly earnings by the dissatisfied were observed, annual earnings of the highly satisfied are estimated to have outdistanced those of the highly dissatisfied by $782 to $1,542 over the subsequent period. Job dissatisfaction thus appears to impose considerable costs in terms of subsequent growth in annual earnings on workers within seven of the eight subgroups. With the single exception of the older white women, there was either a substantial disparity in growth in annual earnings, or gains in hourly earnings and occupational status were entirely offset by other factors.

Dissatisfaction as a Result of Lower Wages and Occupational Status

There is considerable evidence that disparities in earnings and occupational status among comparable workers resulted in expressions of job dissatisfaction among members of each of the eight subgroups. Among the older white men, for example, the highly dissatisfied are estimated to have earned about 69 cents per hour and about $2,352 per year less than comparable highly satisfied workers and to have been in lower status jobs as well.

These differences strongly suggest that *perceived "inequities," particularly in occupational prestige and promotions distributed among otherwise comparable workers, are closely related to expressions of job dissatisfaction and to changes in expressions of job satisfaction or discontent.* That is, among comparable workers, those who are below average in occupational prestige or slower than average in receiving promotions are most likely to express dissatisfaction.

This relationship is especially apparent among those who did *not* change employers. For example, among white men and young white women who did not take other jobs, the dissatisfied were less likely to advance occupationally than comparable workers who were more highly satisfied with their jobs at the beginning of the survey period. Moreover, among the younger men and women, the highly dissatisfied who did not change jobs are estimated to have advanced 6 to 9 points less on the Duncan (1961) Index of Occupational Status over the next 2 to 3 years than comparable youth who were highly satisfied with their jobs.

WORKER PREFERENCES FOR INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC WORK REWARDS

Aspects of Work Liked Best

According to those who maintain that a changing work ethic is emerging, particularly among youth, women, and minorities, the preferences of a more affluent and better educated work force are becoming more "intrinsic" in character.[1] Those who challenge this thesis, however, contend that worker demands still focus primarily on such traditional "bread and butter" items as higher wages, greater job security, earlier retirement, and greater attention to occupational safety and health.[2]

Worker preferences were complex among the NLS respondents, and no single job aspect prevailed as the most preferred among the eight subgroups. (See appendix tables 6-13.) Regardless of age, sex, and race, a variety of both intrinsic and extrinsic preferences were expressed: The work itself, good interpersonal relationships, favorable earnings and fringes, opportunities for responsibility or advancement, reasonable hours of work, and a capacity or ability to do the work. In contrast, such aspects as unionism, job security, and supportive company policy were not among the more salient preferences. The minimal emphasis on job security is unexpected, given the significant increases in unemployment in the early 1970's that particularly affected youth, blacks, and women.

Except for the black middle-aged men, those *highly satisfied* with their jobs were more likely to cite intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards as their most preferred job aspects. With the exception of the young white men in 1970 and the middle-aged white men in 1971, the respondents who reported their jobs as less than highly satisfying in the initial and the followup surveys tended to favor extrinsic over intrinsic rewards or simply liked "nothing at all" about their jobs. One possible interpretation of these differences between satisfied and dissatisfied workers is that the absence or inadequacy of intrinsic rewards produced the dissatisfaction.

The primary preference among the highly satisfied workers was clearly "the work itself," which encompasses the inherent job content as well as interesting, challenging, and meaningful work. With few exceptions, this preference prevailed in both the initial and followup surveys.

Next to the work itself, "positive interpersonal relationships" (including supervision) was the specific aspect of work preferred by each of the age-sex-race groups, especially the women. Regardless of age and race, about 30 percent of the highly satisfied women, compared with less than 15 percent of the men, stated this preference in the initial surveys. This factor, in combination with "the work itself," accounts for approximately 70 percent of women's preferences in the initial surveys and about 64 percent in the followup surveys.

The preference for good interpersonal relationships on the part of the women may perhaps be attributed to their greater concentration in clerical and service occupations. Many of these occupations are characterized by relatively low wages and minimal promotion opportunities, but require extensive interactions among fellow employees, management, and clients.

The preference for intrinsic factors on the part of highly satisfied NLS respondents still prevailed at the end of the survey period, even though the proportions reporting their jobs as highly satisfying tended to decline between the respective survey dates for each of the subgroups, except for the young black men.

[1] Intrinsic factors refer to aspects of work that stem from the job *content* rather than the job *context*. Meaningful work, interesting work, and opportunities for psychological growth are examples of intrinsic aspects of work.

[2] G. Strauss, op. cit.

Aspects of Work Disliked Most

Extrinsic rather than intrinsic factors were clearly the most disliked aspects of work among each of the demographic groups. When level of job satisfaction was taken into consideration, extrinsic dislikes were even more pronounced, especially among those less than highly satisfied with their jobs. Some intrinsic factors were also evident, however, but they did not appear to be a principal source of dissatisfaction.

In each of the demographic groups, many of the workers who were highly satisfied with their jobs consistently stated that "nothing at all" about their work was disliked. Among those less than highly satisfied with their jobs in the initial surveys, half or more of the respondents in all subgroups reported extrinsic factors as the main source of dissatisfaction. Earnings and fringe benefits clearly predominated among dissatisfied black workers at the beginning of the period, regardless of age and sex, with 15 to 22 percent citing this factor. In addition, hours of work and working conditions were frequently mentioned by blacks. *These same three aspects of work were also the primary sources of dissatisfaction among whites who were less than highly satisfied with their jobs.* Those who were highly satisfied with their jobs at the beginning of the period were considerably less inclined to report these factors as the source of any dissatisfaction.

By the end of the survey period, the proportion of those not highly satisfied who identified extrinsic factors declined in each of the demographic groups, while the percentages reporting "nothing at all" as a source of dissatisfaction increased. These changes are most pronounced among the older men, with a decline of 25 percentage points in extrinsic factors for blacks compared with 16 points for whites. For both of these groups, working conditions, earnings (especially for blacks), and hours of work (especially for whites) became less of a source of dissatisfaction. Among mature women, the decrease was 11 percentage points for blacks and 3 points for whites.

While insufficient intrinsic rewards apparently were not a principal source of dissatisfaction, they did have some negative influence, especially among those who were dissatisfied, among the young, and among the mature women. They also appear to have become a relatively more important source of dissatisfaction by the end of the survey period within most of the groups. That is, dissatisfied workers, by the beginning of the 1970's, were more inclined to express concern about the "quality of working life" than they had been during the mid-1960's.

WORK ATTITUDES AND LABOR MARKET EXPERIENCE: OTHER FINDINGS

Initial Survey Responses

When respondents who were in the labor force were asked whether they would continue to work if by some chance they were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, 73 to 78 percent of the older men, 78 to 82 percent of the younger men, 58 to 68 percent of the older women, and 59 to 70 percent of the younger women replied that they would continue to work. Among the men, blacks were 4 to 5 percentage points less likely to respond similarly, while black women were 10 to 1[illegible]ints more likely than whites to express a strong commitment to work.

Questions from the initial surveys that probed the women's plans for future market work showed that a good number did *not* intend to continue working steadily. Sixty-four percent of the young white women, for example, planned to be married, keeping a house, and raising a family at age 35 rather than working. Similarly, only one-half of their older counterparts planned to be working at age 35, and 67 percent of the older group planned to be working 5 years later.

Furthermore, 27 percent of the white working women aged 30 to 44 years in 1967 reported that they would stay at home rather than look for work, if they were to lose their jobs, and all the women, regardless of race or age, held somewhat conservative attitudes toward the propriety of mothers' working. More than 85 percent of the whites and more than 72 percent of the blacks in each age group, for example, were unfavorably disposed toward mothers' working if their husbands were opposed, regardless of how the mothers themselves felt about working. Within each of the four NLS groups of women, roughly 20 percent of those who were married and in the labor force perceived their husbands as somewhat opposed to their working. On the whole, therefore, in the mid- to late-1960's, women of both races appeared less committed to work than men, and black women appeared more committed and liberal in their attitudes toward working mothers than white women. It will be interesting to examine the responses of these same women to similar questions 10 years later. Such data will soon be available from the NLS.

With respect to their occupational goals, young men and women aspired to considerably greater occupational heights than either they or the older workers had attained. Two or 3 years later, as the youth aged and acquired more work experience, occupational aspirations changed little for whites or blacks, males or females. However, 29 percent of the young white men and 37 percent of the young black men perceived their chances of attaining their goals as "fair" at best. Racial differences in aspirations were also substantial among young men and women, and the gap between aspirations and actual occupational achievement was much greater for black youth than white.

Finally, when asked whether "wages" or "liking the work" was the more important aspect of a good job, better than half within nearly every group responded "liking the work." Blacks, however, were 2½ to 3 times more likely than whites to state an economic preference, and men were more motivated than women by economic rewards.

Subsequent Experience of Middle-Aged Men

Between 1966 and 1971, the highly committed to work among the white middle-aged men subsequently

advanced more in hourly earnings, were less likely to encounter a spell of unemployment or to spend time out of the labor force, and were more likely to make a voluntary change of employer and to receive formal training than comparable workers less highly committed to work. These findings also held true for black middle-aged men, except for the relationship between 1966 and 1971. However, the findings do not appear to reflect any tendency among committed workers to be in the more prestigious occupations.

The data also suggest that both black and white middle-aged men who preferred economic over "intrinsic" rewards in 1966 were more prone to subsequent unemployment, but not as a result of any greater propensity to change employers voluntarily. Among black men, those more interested in noneconomic rewards were more likely to experience a period of time out of the labor force, although they were also more likely to receive formal occupational training.

Subsequent Experience of Younger Men

White and black male youth with higher aspirations in 1966 advanced more in annual earnings over the next 3 years than comparable youth who were less ambitious. Among whites, however, the greater advancement in annual earnings stems mainly from the fact that the more ambitious youth were in the higher status jobs initially. The greater annual earnings advancement of the more ambitious black youth does not derive from any such initial advantage, providing firmer evidence that the longitudinal relationship reflects the impact of the attitude on the behavior.

Among the white youth, occupational aspirations are also related to occupational advancement, to increases in hourly rates of pay, to formal occupational training, and to fewer weeks of unemployment. Among the black youth, the more ambitious were more inclined to receive formal occupational training, but there is no evidence that they were more likely to advance either occupationally or in wage rates or that they were less likely to encounter unemployment.

These findings are reinforced by evidence showing that white and black male youth who were confident that they would attain their career goals had considerably greater subsequent success in the labor market during their transitional period from school to work. Those black and white youth who perceived their chances as excellent in 1966, for example, advanced from 7 to 8 points more on the Duncan Index of Occupational Status over the next 3 years than comparable youth who initially rated their chances as poor. In addition, their annual earnings advancement over the next 3 years exceeded that of the less confident by $821 to $1,150 and they experienced 3 to 4 fewer weeks of unemployment as well. Among the white youth, the more confident also had considerably greater advancement in wage rates, had fewer weeks out of the labor force, and were more prone to be geographically mobile.

When those male youth who were still in school at the initial survey were considered separately, it was found that whites who had high occupational aspirations in 1966 held jobs in 1969 that were about 6 points higher on the Duncan Index (on a scale of 0 to 100) than those with lower aspirations, while the difference for comparable black youth was 11 Duncan points.[1] High occupational aspirations did not greatly affect subsequent earnings among white youth, but the same was certainly not true for blacks: The members of the minority group who were in school and held high aspirations in 1966 earned $931 per year more on the average in 1969 than those with low aspirations, while those with medium-range aspirations earned $620 more per year on average. However, preference for monetary vs. nonmonetary rewards on the job did not affect subsequent occupational status for the members of either race in the in-school group.

Subsequent Experience of Older Women

Among white women who worked, the attitude most consistently related to subsequent work experience is the women's perception of their husbands' attitude toward their working. Those women who perceived their husbands as highly opposed to their working, for example, were less likely to advance occupationally, advanced less in annual earnings (by $760), had 3 weeks more of unemployment, were 8 percentage points more likely to encounter a spell of unemployment, had 9 more weeks out of the labor force, and were 9 percentage points less likely to complete formal occupational training than comparable women who perceived their husbands as having a very favorable attitude toward their working. Among black women, on the other hand, there is no apparent relationship between this attitude and subsequent work experience, suggesting that the impact of the husband's views on the wife's labor market behavior is less substantial among blacks than whites, perhaps partly as a result of the longer tradition of female labor force participation among black women than white women.

Other work-related attitudes strongly and consistently associated with subsequent labor market experience among the older women include attitude

[1] O.D. Duncan, "A Socioeconomic Index for All Occupations," in *Occupations and Social Status*, A.J. Reiss (ed.) (New York: The Free Press, 1961).

toward work in the home, work commitment, attachment to employer, and preferences for noneconomic rewards. These longitudinal relationships are net of individual differences in a wide range of skills, abilities, and demographic characteristics (including occupation)—a fact that makes the findings all the more impressive. Significantly, only those women who worked throughout the survey period were considered in the analysis, thus the effects of these attitudes on the decision to work at all were ignored.

Subsequent Experience of Younger Women

White young women who worked and held liberal attitudes toward the propriety of mothers' working spent fewer weeks out of the labor force over the next 2 years than comparable women with more conservative attitudes. The more committed the young woman to work, the more likely she was to receive training, but the lower her subsequent growth in hourly earnings over the next 2 years.

Among blacks, commitment to work and preferences for noneconomic rewards also tended to bear few systematic relationships to subsequent work experience. The more work-committed the woman, the more likely she was to advance occupationally and the less likely to spend time out of the labor force. These relationships, furthermore, appear to be unrelated to any occupational differences that might exist between the committed and uncommitted young women.

When those who were in school in 1968 were considered separately, it appeared that young women who planned to spend most of their adult lives in the labor force earned 17 cents an hour *less* 2 years later than comparable women without such plans, presumably because the women with career intentions were assuming the cost of on-the-job training that would be compensated by more rapid advancement in later years. Annual earnings were also lower by $323 for white women who planned to work continuously. (But similar women who had been out of school nearly 4 years in 1968 were earning 10 cents an hour more than others with less commitment to continuous work.)

For the in-school group, there was no systematic relationship between their 1968 attitudes toward mothers of young children working and their occupational status in 1970; however, only 10 percent of these young women had children in 1970, and their attitudes as well as their work-patterns may have changed since with subsequent experience of childbirth and childrearing. NLS data for later years should provide some indications of how these attitudes and work patterns have evolved since 1970.

APPENDIX

TABLE A1. DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG MEN, BY AGE AND RACE, 1966-71[1]

(Percent distribution)

Degree of job satisfaction	White						Black					
	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
Men 45 to 59 years in 1966												
Respondents: Number	2,185	2,185	(2)	2,185	(2)	2,185	746	746	(2)	746	(2)	746
Percent	100.0	100.0	(2)	100.0	(2)	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)	100.0	(2)	100.0
Highly satisfied	58.9	57.5	(2)	54.8	(2)	46.9	55.1	54.1	(2)	54.4	(2)	50.1
Somewhat satisfied	34.9	36.0	(2)	39.3	(2)	45.1	38.7	40.5	(2)	40.7	(2)	45.6
Somewhat dissatisfied	4.4	4.5	(2)	4.4	(2)	6.5	4.1	3.5	(2)	3.4	(2)	2.9
Highly dissatisfied	1.8	2.0	(2)	1.6	(2)	1.5	2.2	1.9	(2)	1.5	(2)	1.4
Men 14 to 24 years in 1966												
Respondents: Number	848	(2)	(2)	848	848	(2)	289	(2)	(2)	289	289	(2)
Percent	100.0	(2)	(2)	100.0	100.0	(2)	100.0	(2)	(2)	100.0	100.0	(2)
Highly satisfied	54.8	(2)	(2)	54.8	50.0	(2)	35.1	(2)	(2)	38.5	44.1	(2)
Somewhat satisfied	38.2	(2)	(2)	39.0	42.5	(2)	53.6	(2)	(2)	50.7	43.1	(2)
Somewhat dissatisfied	5.5	(2)	(2)	4.8	6.0	(2)	8.4	(2)	(2)	8.7	8.1	(2)
Highly dissatisfied	1.5	(2)	(2)	1.5	1.6	(2)	2.9	(2)	(2)	2.2	4.7	(2)

[1]Sample includes respondents employed and not enrolled in school at each survey date.

[2]Not available.

TABLE A2. DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG WOMEN, BY AGE AND RACE, 1967-72[1]

(Percent distribution)

Degree of job satisfaction	White						Black					
	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Women 30 to 44 years in 1967												
Respondents: Number	915	(2)	915	(2)	915	915	452	(2)	452	(2)	452	452
Percent	100.0	(2)	100.0	(2)	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)	100.0	(2)	100.0	100.0
Highly satisfied	69.8	(2)	67.3	(2)	64.6	57.5	59.9	(2)	55.9	(2)	53.3	47.0
Somewhat satisfied	26.7	(2)	27.9	(2)	29.7	35.4	33.4	(2)	40.3	(2)	42.3	45.5
Somewhat dissatisfied	2.4	(2)	3.0	(2)	4.6	5.4	4.9	(2)	2.7	(2)	3.7	5.1
Highly dissatisfied	1.2	(2)	1.7	(2)	1.1	1.8	1.8	(2)	1.1	(2)	.8	2.4
Women 14 to 24 years in 1968												
Respondents: Number	(2)	395	395	395	395	(2)	(2)	121	121	121	121	(2)
Percent	(2)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)	(2)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(2)
Highly satisfied	(2)	62.7	64.7	59.4	58.0	(2)	(2)	57.8	61.4	45.3	45.7	(2)
Somewhat satisfied	(2)	28.2	31.2	34.3	36.6	(2)	(2)	33.7	31.8	48.6	40.4	(2)
Somewhat dissatisfied	(2)	5.1	2.9	4.4	3.9	(2)	(2)	5.7	4.8	4.8	9.5	(2)
Highly dissatisfied	(2)	4.1	1.2	2.0	1.4	(2)	(2)	2.8	1.9	1.2	4.3	(2)

[1]Sample includes respondents employed and not enrolled in school at each survey date.

[2]Not available.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A3. PROPORTION HIGHLY SATISFIED WITH THEIR JOBS AMONG MEN, BY RACE, OCCUPATION, INDUSTRY, AND WAGE RATES, 1966 TO 1971

Item	Men						Young men			
	White			Black			White		Black	
	1966	1969	1971	1966	1969	1971	1966	1969	1966	1969
Occupation										
Professional, technical, and kindred	71.3	71.4	66.6	90.9	73.0	82.7	63.3	55.1	59.3	37.0
Managers, officials, and proprietors	71.4	67.8	61.1	59.2	63.5	49.1	63.9	73.2	[1]	[1]
Clerical and kindred	58.2	52.6	45.9	60.5	57.3	42.1	44.9	55.5	42.1	41.3
Sales workers	68.0	66.0	59.7	[1]	[1]	[1]	61.2	41.4	[1]	[1]
Craftsworkers, supervisors, and kindred	53.9	52.6	41.2	53.3	55.2	50.0	61.6	57.1	44.3	50.7
Operatives and kindred	45.7	42.1	34.0	49.8	46.7	47.9	43.7	47.7	32.4	34.4
Private household workers	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Service workers (except for private household)	51.0	41.5	42.6	56.6	51.4	59.9	56.4	43.6	42.0	43.3
Farmers and farm managers	55.4	48.7	44.9	53.4	48.6	42.1	84.0	67.2	[1]	[1]
Farm laborers and supervisors	43.4	46.2	32.4	27.6	44.8	35.8	47.3	46.6	20.8	34.2
Nonfarm laborers	46.0	40.0	35.2	45.8	51.6	48.7	35.2	46.3	24.9	30.8
Industry										
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries	54.9	48.7	43.4	37.9	47.5	41.1	54.6	49.4	21.2	36.4
Mining	48.3	34.6	41.9	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Construction	62.3	54.3	44.3	47.9	58.6	45.4	58.3	58.8	26.1	31.0
Manufacturing	50.7	51.0	42.3	51.3	44.0	48.5	47.7	47.1	35.6	34.1
Transportation, communication, and public utilities	55.8	52.9	39.4	56.2	65.9	56.7	60.3	65.4	17.7	40.2
Wholesale and retail trades	62.9	57.5	53.3	51.1	53.9	53.2	46.7	48.1	36.8	38.9
Finance, insurance, and real estate	70.1	68.6	66.2	50.2	[1]	[1]	[1]	58.1	[1]	[1]
Business and repair services	61.0	57.4	58.5	52.1	53.1	50.0	58.3	54.4	[1]	[1]
Personal services	48.0	42.3	41.4	36.5	46.1	37.2	[1]	31.9	54.5	47.2
Entertainment and recreation	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	50.8	[1]	[1]
Professional and related services	70.0	68.8	60.8	69.9	56.1	64.1	59.4	57.7	31.8	43.6
Public administration	60.0	57.8	47.1	60.0	51.3	48.7	59.0	52.7	[1]	[1]
Average hourly earnings										
Less than $1.60 per hour	55.2	46.1	42.8	41.6	46.4	40.8	40.7	50.3	30.3	39.4
$1.60–$2.24 per hour	47.7	45.5	38.2	47.2	51.3	55.1	49.3	51.7	49.3	31.7
$2.25–$3.24 per hour	50.3	46.4	41.3	63.4	53.1	56.8	53.7	51.4	30.2	36.2
$3.25+ per hour	65.4	63.2	52.2	56.0	55.0	55.3	57.7	53.2	45.8	33.3

[1] Proportion not shown where based on fewer than 25 observations.

TABLE A4. PROPORTION HIGHLY SATISFIED WITH THEIR JOBS AMONG WOMEN, BY RACE, OCCUPATION, INDUSTRY, AND WAGE RATES, 1967 TO 1972

Item	Older women						Younger women			
	White			Black			White		Black	
	1967	1969	1971	1967	1969	1971	1968	1970	1968	1970
Occupation										
Professional, technical, and kindred	84.0	80.3	73.0	85.6	82.5	73.4	68.8	51.3	64.2	50.0
Managers, officials, and proprietors	71.7	63.0	71.5	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Clerical and kindred	70.7	68.1	68.7	58.5	55.7	65.6	66.2	56.6	57.4	43.0
Sales workers	67.3	65.3	62.1	[1]	[1]	[1]	45.2	54.3	[1]	[1]
Craftsworkers, supervisors, and kindred	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Operatives and kindred	55.5	47.3	52.8	49.0	46.3	47.3	44.2	44.9	39.3	45.7
Private household workers	28.5	[1]	[1]	45.5	56.8	47.9	[1]	52.5	27.9	58.1
Service workers (except for private household)	63.5	64.3	59.3	64.4	59.3	53.4	61.6	46.6	54.8	53.3
Farmers and farm managers	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Farm laborers and supervisors	50.3	30.6	45.9	18.9	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Nonfarm laborers	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Industry										
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries	57.4	36.9	50.1	18.7	11.7	66.1	[1]	47.3	[1]	[1]
Mining	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Construction	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Manufacturing	61.6	56.5	58.7	50.0	46.8	48.4	55.4	48.8	50.3	54.3
Transportation, communication, and public utilities	66.2	60.5	65.2	[1]	[1]	[1]	63.0	63.4	[1]	[1]
Wholesale and retail trades	65.0	62.5	64.9	46.5	57.6	50.1	57.0	50.2	44.7	45.2
Finance, insurance, and real estate	73.1	66.9	64.7	[1]	[1]	[1]	57.9	58.5	[1]	[1]
Business and repair services	69.2	62.5	62.3	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	39.6	[1]	[1]
Personal services	50.3	52.9	61.3	48.0	58.9	50.3	47.4	51.0	27.9	51.6
Entertainment and recreation	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]
Professional and related services	79.5	78.8	72.2	78.1	68.0	69.2	72.6	57.6	69.5	51.4
Public administration	71.2	68.0	77.8	50.2	47.6	51.5	[1]	57.6	[1]	40.6
Average hourly earnings										
Less than $1.60 per hour	63.5	62.3	62.3	54.6	56.3	50.3	56.5	53.8	47.2	47.9
$1.60–$2.24 per hour	67.7	62.4	65.0	52.5	57.6	53.8	60.3	52.6	54.6	46.3
$2.25–$3.24 per hour	72.3	71.2	62.2	58.1	52.1	45.3	66.7	57.5	60.7	49.5
$3.25+ per hour	78.2	71.2	71.3	84.6	81.7	84.8	79.5	59.0	[1]	[1]

[1] Proportion not shown where based on fewer than 25 observations.

TABLE A5. REGRESSION RESULTS—THE EFFECTS OF JOB DISSATISFACTION ON SELECTED ASPECTS OF WORK EXPERIENCE BY AGE, SEX, AND RACE[1]

Aspect of work experience	Men 45 to 59		Young men 14 to 24		Women 30 to 44		Young women 14 to 24	
	White	Black	White	Black	White	Black	White	Black
Change of employer[2]	4.72 (4.01)***	6.79 (3.67)***	11.31 (4.96)***	6.15 (1.76)*	4.76 (4.34)***	6.25 (2.13)**	10.55 (4.01)***	14.09 (3.27)***
Change in occupational status	-.61 (-.32)	1.02 (1.64)*	.19 (.22)	1.73 (1.66)*	-.36 (-.57)	1.87 (3.02)***	-.78 (-1.00)	4.53 (3.40)***
Change in hourly earnings	-.04 (-.84)	-.04 (-.73)	-.11 (-2.29)**	-.01 (-.24)	-.55 (-1.10)	.09 (1.69)*	-.03 (-.99)	.09 (1.84)*
Change in annual earnings	-290 (-2.34)**	-270 (-2.19)**	-514 (-3.73)***	-285 (-1.65)	-77 (-.47)	107 (.74)	-261 (-2.81)***	-187 (-1.46)
Weeks of unemployment	1.43 (3.84)**	1.80 (2.62)***	.98 (2.56)**	-.69 (-.86)	2.17 (3.99)***	1.37 (2.13)**	.64 (2.92)***	.48 (.83)
Susceptibility to unemployment[2]	4.96 (4.12)***	5.97 (2.92)***	11.18 (5.34)***	2.05 (.56)	6.61 (3.26)***	6.22 (2.53)**	4.26 (2.17)**	4.11 (1.12)
Weeks of unemployment (for those with some unemployment)	1.86 (1.35)	1.65 (.78)	.30 (.30)	-1.93 (-1.31)	3.50 (2.14)**	1.77 (.98)	1.39 (2.00)**	.56 (.45)
Weeks out of the labor force	5.18 (5.00)***	1.39 (.81)	1.44 (2.13)**	.09 (.08)	3.74 (1.91)*	1.11 (.49)	2.39 (1.91)*	4.55 (2.39)**
Susceptibility to withdrawal from the labor force[2]	4.54 (2.95)***	5.28 (2.16)**	.73 (.31)	.82 (.22)	4.52 (1.88)*	2.16 (-.77)	3.68 (1.71)*	3.16 (.99)
Weeks out of the labor force (for those with some weeks)	8.16 (3.85)***	-.74 (-.24)	3.15 (2.53)**	-.47 (-.23)	3.38 (1.15)	3.60 (1.08)	1.54 (.98)	4.34 (2.01)**
Received training[2]	-2.26 (-1.83)*	-.10 (-.07)	.17 (.09)	.71 (.31)	-.64 (-.30)	1.58 (.65)	-1.21 (-.61)	.37 (.11)
Geographical mobility[2]	.32 (.38)	.05 (.07)	-1.92 (-1.15)	2.22 (1.07)	1.85 (1.29)	-1.46 (-1.07)	-1.57 (-1.80)	1.33 (.50)
Number of sample cases[3]	2,520	1,061	1,199	490	944	433	900	318

[1]In all cases multiple regression analysis has been used to control for individual differences in education, formal training, years of work experience, length of service with employer, health, marital status, region of residence, and rural versus urban residence.

[2]Since the dependent variable is dichotomous, regression coefficients have been multiplied by 100 to express as the percentage point differential in the particular aspect of work experience associated with a one-point difference in job dissatisfaction.

[3]The number of sample cases reported refers to wage of salary workers employed full time at the first survey date. In addition, for cohorts of youth the sample is at all times restricted to those not enrolled in school. Actual sample sizes in some cases include fewer respondents due to further sample restrictions for particular aspects of work experience examined.

*$p < .10$; **$p < .05$; ***$p < .01$ (two-tailed tests)

TABLE A6. ASPECT OF WORK LIKED BEST BY MIDDLE-AGED MEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF SATISFACTION, 1966 AND 1971[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work liked best	White						Black					
	1966			1971			1966			1971		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	3,152	1,821	1,331	2,351	1,104	1,247	1,166	597	569	813	400	413
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	34.9	40.4	27.3	32.2	37.2	26.9	22.8	26.5	19.1	22.2	23.5	21.0
Capacity to do work	3.7	3.3	4.2	4.4	3.4	5.4	9.2	9.5	9.0	9.3	8.9	9.8
Responsibility or advancement	13.7	14.0	13.4	15.0	16.2	13.9	5.9	7.1	4.6	10.7	11.8	9.7
Other intrinsic	2.1	2.2	1.9	6.1	5.7	6.4	2.2	1.1	3.4	4.9	5.6	4.3
Subtotal intrinsic	54.4	59.9	46.8	57.7	62.5	52.6	40.1	44.2	36.1	47.1	49.8	44.8
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	10.9	7.4	15.5	10.2	7.0	13.0	15.7	12.9	18.6	12.0	12.2	11.8
Job security	3.9	2.9	5.4	3.0	1.6	4.2	5.2	4.1	6.2	4.8	4.2	5.3
Hours of work	4.6	3.6	5.5	4.4	3.3	5.4	5.4	4.3	6.6	4.6	5.2	4.0
Working conditions	5.2	5.2	5.2	2.8	3.4	2.2	5.8	5.0	6.5	3.5	3.9	3.1
Limited pressure	1.7	1.4	2.2	1.9	1.4	2.4	3.3	3.5	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5
Supervision	2.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	1.9	1.4	6.6	7.2	6.0	6.8	4.2	9.3
Interpersonal relationships	11.3	12.5	9.7	11.4	14.3	8.9	8.0	10.5	5.5	10.9	13.1	8.7
Company policy and administration	2.2	2.3	2.0	1.4	1.8	1.1	4.7	6.1	3.2	2.4	2.4	2.4
Union	.1	.1	.2	0	0	0	.1	.2	0	0	0	0
Other extrinsic	1.7	1.3	2.3	2.7	1.6	3.6	1.9	1.6	2.1	2.4	1.9	2.9
Subtotal extrinsic	44.0	39.6	49.9	39.1	36.3	42.1	56.7	55.4	57.7	49.9	48.6	51.0
Unclassifiable	.2	.1	.2	0	0	0	.1	0	.3	0	0	0
Nothing	1.5	.2	3.3	2.9	.4	5.1	3.2	.5	6.0	2.8	.7	5.0

[1]Sample includes all respondents employed at the specific survey date.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A7. ASPECT OF WORK LIKED BEST BY YOUNG MEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION, 1966 AND 1970[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work liked best	White						Black					
	1966			1970			1966			1970		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	1,232	634	598	1,865	903	962	489	167	322	661	252	409
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	29.0	33.1	24.6	28.0	31.1	24.8	26.9	29.5	25.6	20.2	28.3	15.0
Capacity to do work	6.9	6.8	7.0	4.6	3.7	5.5	9.8	9.6	10.0	6.2	5.0	6.9
Responsibility or advancement	9.8	11.7	7.7	14.7	16.5	13.2	4.9	9.6	2.5	6.7	5.9	7.2
Other intrinsic	9.4	10.3	8.5	9.3	9.7	8.8	9.5	12.5	8.0	8.3	10.5	7.0
Subtotal intrinsic	55.1	61.9	47.8	56.6	61.0	52.3	51.1	61.2	46.1	41.4	49.7	36.1
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	12.7	8.2	17.6	11.1	7.5	14.4	12.4	4.9	16.4	10.9	7.4	13.1
Job security	.9	.8	1.0	1.4	1.0	1.8	1.0	.4	1.3	3.1	4.4	2.3
Hours of work	6.3	4.7	8.1	5.0	3.2	6.7	5.9	6.4	5.6	8.4	5.8	9.9
Working conditions	3.0	3.0	2.9	4.7	5.4	4.1	2.5	1.7	2.9	2.9	2.7	3.0
Limited pressure	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.5	2.2	2.7	3.8	2.0	2.6	3.1	2.2
Supervision	3.1	3.6	2.6	2.1	2.3	1.9	4.0	5.0	3.4	3.6	5.2	2.6
Interpersonal relationships	10.8	10.3	11.3	11.4	13.9	9.1	7.8	9.3	7.0	10.9	10.9	11.0
Company policy and administration	2.1	2.9	1.4	1.5	1.9	1.2	3.5	4.3	3.1	2.0	2.8	1.5
Union	.1	0	.2	.1	0	.1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other extrinsic	2.9	2.3	3.5	1.4	1.8	1.0	3.4	1.2	4.5	3.3	6.4	1.6
Subtotal extrinsic	43.6	37.4	50.4	40.6	38.5	[illegible]	43.2	37.0	45.8	47.7	48.7	47.2
Unclassifiable	.2	.2	.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nothing	1.1	.5	1.8	3.0	.6	5.2	5.7	1.7	7.7	11.0	1.5	16.7

[1]Sample includes all respondents employed and not enrolled in school at the specific survey date.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A8. ASPECT OF WORK LIKED BEST BY YOUNG WOMEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION, 1967 AND 1972[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work liked best	White						Black					
	1967			1970			1966			1970		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	1,619	1,097	522	1,633	950	683	809	430	379	681	339	342
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	35.7	41.1	24.5	32.7	38.5	24.7	35.5	40.2	29.7	30.0	35.9	24.0
Capacity to do work	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.1	2.8	5.2	6.3	3.8	5.1	5.7	4.6
Responsibility or advancement	4.8	5.0	4.5	8.5	9.0	8.2	4.0	3.9	3.9	5.0	4.7	5.3
Other intrinsic	4.1	3.6	5.2	5.8	6.7	4.5	4.6	4.8	4.2	5.8	6.8	4.9
Subtotal intrinsic	46.6	51.7	36.2	49.2	56.3	40.2	49.3	55.2	41.6	45.9	53.1	38.8
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	6.6	4.3	11.3	6.1	2.8	10.8	4.9	3.8	6.4	7.7	4.6	10.8
Job security	.2	.1	.4	.5	.5	.3	.3	0	.6	1.4	1.7	1.1
Hours of work	5.4	3.8	8.7	7.0	5.8	8.7	6.3	3.9	9.2	6.1	3.5	8.7
Working conditions	2.5	2.7	2.1	2.9	3.1	2.5	2.4	2.1	2.7	2.5	1.8	3.2
Limited pressure	.9	.5	1.8	1.0	1.2	.8	1.9	1.6	2.2	1.4	.7	2.2
Supervision	4.0	4.5	3.2	2.7	2.6	2.8	11.1	13.5	8.1	6.3	5.4	7.1
Interpersonal relationships	24.5	25.3	22.8	22.6	22.4	22.7	11.4	15.0	6.9	16.4	21.0	11.9
Company policy and administration	1.4	1.6	.9	1.9	2.3	1.3	1.4	.7	2.4	2.5	3.6	1.3
Union	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other extrinsic	4.6	4.0	6.9	4.6	3.1	6.5	4.3	2.8	6.1	4.5	4.5	4.6
Subtotal extrinsic	50.4	46.8	57.9	49.3	43.8	56.4	44.0	43.4	44.6	48.8	46.8	50.9
Unclassifiable	1.0	1.2	.7	0	0	0	.6	.2	1.1	0	0	0
Nothing	1.8	.3	5.0	1.5	0	3.5	6.3	1.2	12.7	5.2	.2	10.2

[1]Sample includes all respondents employed at the specific survey date. NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A9. ASPECT OF WORK LIKED BEST BY YOUNG WOMEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION, 1968 AND 1971[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work liked best	White						Black					
	1968			1971			1968			1971		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	936	574	362	1,304	697	607	323	157	166	494	234	260
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	33.0	38.9	23.8	32.6	36.2	28.4	33.1	42.2	24.3	35.2	43.2	28.0
Capacity to do work	2.8	1.2	5.3	3.4	2.1	5.0	4.0	2.9	5.1	6.4	2.9	9.6
Responsibility or advancement	5.6	6.6	4.3	7.4	7.5	7.3	2.9	3.5	2.0	2.9	2.6	3.0
Other intrinsic	4.4	4.0	4.9	7.0	8.9	4.9	6.1	6.3	5.9	5.2	4.5	5.9
Subtotal intrinsic	45.8	50.7	38.3	50.4	54.7	45.6	46.0	54.9	37.3	49.7	53.4	46.5
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	7.2	4.2	12.0	8.1	3.9	13.2	9.2	3.3	15.0	13.5	13.7	13.3
Job security	.4	0	.9	.2	.2	.2	.4	0	.8	.2	0	.4
Hours of work	4.0	2.6	6.2	7.7	5.4	10.4	4.2	3.8	4.6	5.1	3.4	6.7
Working conditions	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.1	3.6	2.5	3.4	4.8	2.0	2.3	3.6	1.1
Limited pressure	1.0	.7	1.3	1.1	.8	1.6	2.7	2.3	3.0	1.5	1.0	1.9
Supervision	4.0	4.9	2.6	2.2	3.3	1.0	5.4	4.8	6.1	2.0	.8	1.1
Interpersonal relationships	27.4	28.6	25.3	23.5	25.6	20.9	18.5	24.9	12.2	19.7	21.6	18.1
Company policy and administration	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.3	.9	.6	.4	.9	.4	.9	0
Union	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other extrinsic	3.4	2.8	4.3	.7	.9	.4	2.2	1.0	3.2	1.2	1.1	1.2
Subtotal extrinsic	52.2	48.6	57.2	47.7	45.0	51.1	46.6	45.3	47.8	45.9	46.1	45.8
Unclassifiable	.3	.2	.6	0	0	0	.4	0	.9	.1	.3	0
Nothing	1.7	.4	3.9	1.6	.1	3.4	7.0	0	13.9	4.2	.3	7.8

[1]Sample includes all respondents employed and not enrolled in school at the specific survey date.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A10. ASPECT OF WORK DISLIKED MOST BY MIDDLE-AGED MEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION, 1966 AND 1971[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work disliked most	White						Black					
	1966			1971			1966			1971		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	3,152	1,821	1,331	2,351	1,104	1,247	1,166	597	569	813	400	413
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	4.5	2.9	7.0	3.8	1.9	5.6	3.5	1.5	5.5	2.4	1.2	3.6
Work is difficult	3.0	2.1	4.3	3.4	1.7	4.9	5.5	3.2	7.9	4.6	3.3	5.9
No responsibility or chance for advancement	7	.4	1.2	.4	.2	.7	.4	.2	.6	.7	.2	1.3
Other intrinsic	6.1	6.2	6.0	14.6	14.6	14.5	3.5	3.7	3.2	8.8	6.2	11.4
Subtotal intrinsic	14.3	11.6	18.5	22.2	18.4	25.7	12.9	8.6	17.2	16.5	10.9	22.2
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	9.0	8.1	10.3	6.6	5.1	8.0	16.3	10.5	22.4	7.8	5.1	10.7
Job insecurity	1.9	1.6	2.4	1.1	.9	1.3	2.9	2.0	3.8	1.3	1.9	.6
Hours of work	12.4	11.5	13.7	8.4	7.4	9.3	8.6	10.0	7.2	5.4	4.8	6.0
Working conditions	9.1	7.3	11.7	4.6	2.3	6.6	7.9	5.2	10.7	3.2	2.3	4.1
Too much pressure	5.1	4.9	5.5	3.9	2.7	4.9	2.4	1.9	2.9	1.1	.8	1.5
Supervision	2.0	1.2	3.1	1.9	1.3	2.5	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.5	.8	2.1
Interpersonal relationship	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.2	1.2	1.3	.8	.9	.8	.2	.4	0
Company policy and administration	2.7	1.5	4.2	3.1	2.7	3.4	1.2	1.1	1.3	2.2	2.4	1.9
Union	.2	.1	.2	.4	.1	.7	.1	.1	0	.2	.4	0
Other extrinsic	5.5	5.6	5.3	3.8	3.2	4.4	5.1	4.7	5.4	3.5	2.5	4.4
Subtotal extrinsic	49.4	43.1	58.1	35.0	26.9	42.4	46.4	37.4	55.6	26.4	21.4	31.3
Unclassifiable	11.3	11.5	11.1	3.0	3.8	2.2	5.1	5.8	4.3	1.9	2.5	1.4
Nothing	24.9	34.0	12.3	39.9	51.0	29.9	35.8	48.3	22.7	55.1	65.1	45.0

[1] Sample includes all respondents employed at the specific survey date.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A11. ASPECT OF WORK DISLIKED MOST BY YOUNG MEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION, 1966 AND 1970[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work disliked most	Whites						Blacks					
	1966			1970			1966			1970		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	1,232	634	598	1,865	903	962	489	167	322	661	252	409
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	5.3	1.5	9.2	8.3	3.5	12.7	2.5	.4	3.6	7.1	2.8	9.7
Work is difficult	2.4	2.0	2.9	2.1	1.5	2.6	5.9	1.1	8.4	4.6	1.4	6.5
No responsibility or chance for advancement	.8	.1	1.6	3.7	4.8	2.8	2.2	0	3.3	3.8	4.6	3.3
Other intrinsic	17.3	18.9	15.6	12.2	10.9	13.4	15.4	16.0	15.1	12.6	15.6	10.7
Subtotal intrinsic	25.8	22.5	29.3	26.3	20.7	31.5	26.0	17.5	29.4	28.1	24.4	30.2
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	12.4	11.0	13.8	11.3	9.1	13.2	19.6	15.9	21.4	16.8	7.9	22.3
Job insecurity	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.1	2.1	1.5	2.5	.9	.5	1.1
Hours of work	13.3	11.4	15.3	12.4	12.3	12.4	8.6	8.7	8.6	7.3	6.4	7.8
Working conditions	3.8	2.1	5.5	5.5	2.2	8.5	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.8	2.6	4.5
Too much pressure	1.6	1.1	1.5	2.3	2.0	2.6	.5	0	.8	.4	.6	.2
Supervision	3.3	2.1	4.6	3.2	2.0	4.2	2.4	1.0	3.2	2.0	1.0	2.6
Interpersonal relationships	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.2	2.4	.6	1.4	.9	1.7
Company policy and administration	3.1	2.5	3.6	4.0	3.0	4.9	2.7	1.0	3.6	2.5	2.4	2.5
Union	.2	.4	0	.4	.3	.5	.2	0	.3	.1	0	.1
Other extrinsic	8.4	7.5	9.4	1.6	1.1	2.3	6.1	7.3	5.5	.9	.3	1.3
Subtotal extrinsic	48.2	40.8	56.7	43.0	34.8	51.5	46.8	41.1	50.0	36.1	22.6	44.1
Unclassifiable	2.8	3.9	1.6	.6	.5	.7	.2	.6	0	.1	0	.1
Nothing	22.7	32.4	12.4	29.6	44.1	16.3	26.9	41.0	19.6	35.9	52.7	25.5

[1] Sample includes all respondents employed and not enrolled in school at the specific survey date.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A12. ASPECT OF WORK DISLIKED MOST BY MATURE WOMEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION, 1967 AND 1972[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work disliked most	Whites						Blacks					
	1967			1972			1967			1972		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	1,619	1,097	522	1,633	950	683	809	430	379	681	339	342
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	3.8	1.0	9.6	3.7	1.2	7.2	5.0	.5	10.6	3.7	1.2	6.4
Work is difficult	4.0	2.0	8.2	3.9	2.2	6.2	3.0	1.4	4.9	2.8	1.1	4.5
No responsibility or chance for advancement	.5	.2	1.0	.3	.3	.3	.5	.6	.3	.3	.2	.5
Other intrinsic	13.5	14.8	10.7	18.8	17.9	20.1	11.0	7.9	14.8	16.9	16.0	17.8
Subtotal intrinsic	21.8	18.0	29.5	26.7	21.6	33.8	19.5	10.4	30.6	23.7	18.5	29.2
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	6.7	5.6	8.9	6.9	6.4	7.5	14.4	10.6	19.3	10.5	8.7	12.4
Job insecurity	.5	.6	.4	.6	.4	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6	.7	.6
Hours of work	9.4	9.4	9.4	7.8	6.7	9.4	6.6	6.8	6.3	5.9	6.3	5.5
Working conditions	4.8	3.4	7.7	3.2	2.1	4.9	3.9	2.9	5.1	2.4	2.2	2.6
Too much pressure	4.1	3.5	5.4	4.7	4.1	5.6	1.6	1.3	2.0	1.0	.9	1.2
Supervision	1.6	.7	3.5	2.7	1.3	4.7	2.9	1.8	4.3	1.6	.9	2.2
Interpersonal relationships	2.0	1.7	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.9	1.1	.9	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6
Company policy and administration	2.5	2.6	2.3	2.4	1.6	3.5	3.2	3.1	3.2	2.7	1.8	3.6
Union	.1	.1	.2	.3	.3	.1	.2	.4	0	.2	0	.5
Other extrinsic	5.7	5.2	6.8	4.7	4.1	5.4	5.6	6.7	4.4	5.0	4.2	5.8
Subtotal extrinsic	37.4	32.8	47.4	35.8	29.3	44.7	40.1	35.1	46.6	31.4	27.1	36.0
Unclassifiable	4.1	4.1	4.2	.2	.2	.1	1.7	1.2	2.3	0	0	0
Nothing	36.6	45.2	18.5	37.4	48.7	21.5	38.6	53.2	20.5	44.7	54.4	34.9

[1]Sample includes all respondents employed at the specific survey date. NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

TABLE A13. ASPECT OF WORK DISLIKED MOST BY YOUNG WOMEN, BY RACE AND DEGREE OF JOB SATISFACTION, 1968 AND 1971[1]

(Percent distribution)

Aspect of work disliked most	White						Black					
	1968			1971			1968			1971		
	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied	Total	Highly satisfied	Not highly satisfied
Respondents: Number	936	574	362	1,304	697	607	323	157	166	494	234	260
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Intrinsic												
The work itself	9.2	3.0	18.9	10.5	4.9	17.1	6.2	2.0	10.2	6.4	2.5	10.0
Work is difficult	3.4	2.6	4.7	2.7	1.9	3.5	3.3	1.3	5.2	3.5	1.7	5.1
No responsibility or chance for advancement	1.4	.9	2.1	3.5	2.9	4.4	1.2	1.0	1.4	3.1	2.6	3.6
Other intrinsic	9.7	9.7	9.7	15.1	14.7	15.6	8.2	8.2	8.3	7.5	8.7	6.5
Subtotal intrinsic	23.7	16.2	35.4	31.8	24.4	40.6	18.9	12.5	25.1	20.5	15.5	25.2
Extrinsic												
Earnings and fringes	8.2	8.2	8.3	9.4	6.8	12.4	11.8	8.5	14.9	10.1	5.5	14.2
Job insecurity	.2	.4	0	.8	.4	1.6	1.9	1.1	2.5	.7	.9	.5
Hours of work	11.2	11.2	11.3	8.6	8.9	8.3	13.1	11.5	14.7	14.4	12.4	16.1
Working conditions	3.4	2.3	5.1	2.4	2.1	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.4	1.4	1.0	1.8
Too much pressure	4.1	3.4	5.2	4.1	3.5	4.7	3.1	3.5	2.7	1.4	1.0	1.7
Supervision	4.6	3.9	5.7	3.6	1.6	5.9	3.2	.5	5.7	5.0	2.8	7.0
Interpersonal relationships	3.7	3.1	4.8	2.6	1.9	3.4	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.3	2.2	2.4
Company policy and administration	3.0	2.3	4.1	3.8	3.0	4.7	3.2	4.1	2.3	2.6	1.3	3.8
Union	0	0	.1	.2	0	.4	0	0	0	.1	0	.3
Other extrinsic	3.8	3.3	4.5	2.6	1.3	3.9	4.2	4.9	3.6	.4	.3	.3
Subtotal extrinsic	42.2	37.9	49.1	38.1	29.5	47.9	45.5	39.5	51.8	38.4	27.4	48.1
Unclassifiable	1.2	1.2	1.3	.1	.1	0	1.2	.9	1.5	.1	0	.3
Nothing	32.8	44.5	14.1	29.8	46.0	11.0	34.1	47.1	21.5	41.0	57.1	26.4

[1] Sample includes all respondents employed and not enrolled in school at the specific survey date.

NOTE: Detail may not add to total because of rounding.

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